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PARTMENT OF LABOR
HILDREN'S BUREAU



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UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY



CHILDREN'S BUREAU

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Stock week dent WE ARE fighting again for human freedom and especially for the future of our children in a free world. Children must be safeguarded—and they can be safeguarded—in the midst of this total war so that they can live and share in that future.—A Children's Charter in Wartime.

YOUNG WORKERS IN WARTIME

Supervised Student Labor on Farms

The Stockton Plan

By Fred K. Spooner and J. W. Halleen, Stockton, Calif.

Note.—Stockton is in the San Joaquin Valley; in the surrounding area grapes, tomatoes, celery, sugar beets, peaches, and other fruits and vegetables are produced. These crops are harvested by hand, and large numbers of workers are needed. San Joaquin County uses 1 percent of all the agricultural labor used in the United States. In the past migratory labor has been used to supplement resident farm labor.

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New Army installations and nearby shipyards, as well as Selective Service requirements, have drawn heavily upon local labor. The Japanese and Americans of Japanese ancestry, who provided much farm labor, were evacuated. The number of migratory workers decreased as other jobs opened up and restrictions on traveling increased. During the 1942 season unusually abundant crops made the labor shortage more acute, and several methods of supplementing the available labor supply were tried. One of these was the recruitment of students as described in the following article.

The article was written by two of the three persons most active in the administration of the student-labor program. Mr. Spooner, the vice principal of one of the Stockton schools, was appointed by the school authorities as coordinator of student labor for the Stockton Unified School District, and through committee action became responsible for the administration of the student-labor program. Mr. Halleen represented the Farm-Placement Section of the United States Employment Service.

During the harvest season of 1942 a plan for the employment of school children in agriculture was developed in Stockton, Calif. The program received much favorable comment; it also received some that was unfavorable, from persons who honestly felt that the standards set were unduly high and that they imposed severe hardships on the growers. It is true that the standards were high, but the reasons behind them were practical, not idealistic. This paper is written to show how the plan evolved, through trial and error. The authors of the paper, who had a great deal to do with shaping the policies, make no claim that they did a perfect job; they just did the best they could under the circumstances.

As a result of the work of a community planning committee on farm-labor supply, the Stockton school authorities, during the last week of school, appointed a coordinator of student labor to give full time to the administra-

tion of a program of supplying students as labor for harvesting crops, with proper consideration for their welfare. The coordinator worked in close cooperation with a representative of the United States Employment Service and with a representative of the office of the county agricultural commissioner, who had recently been appointed as coordinator of farm labor in the area.¹ None of these three men had more than a vague notion of what would happen when the students hit the farms. Had they been able to foresee the headaches before them, they probably would have resigned at once!

The Cherry Season.

Before a plan of action could be set up, the labor situation reached a crisis. The area had a bumper crop of cherries, and the usual transient pickers failed to arrive. While the student-labor coordinator was still setting up files (all students from the seventh grade upward who wished to work had been registered) the growers began to demand action.

A quick call was sent out to the schools, and all boys interested were told to appear at the Employment Service Office the following morning, bringing their lunches. It was decided to accept orders only from farmers who were known to the agricultural office and the Employment Service as responsible persons. Only three requirements were made: That all trucks used be securely built and be insured; that workmen's compensation insurance be held by the grower; and that clean drinking water and individual paper cups be provided. None of the farms was inspected. Three hundred boys were loaded on the trucks in hit-or-miss fashion, without instructions; it was assumed that the growers would take care of that. The boys ranged from 13 to 16 years of age, with a few 12-year-olds sneaking in.

¹The county agricultural commissioner is a member of the staff of the State department of agriculture; this official should not be confused with the county representative of the State extension service.

By noon of that day it was apparent that someone had erred. The five growers who had taken boys were all dissatisfied—even hostile. Two definitely refused to have anything further to do with student workers. The other three were rather dazed but were willing to try again.

What had happened was that none of the growers had been ready with enough equipment for the boys. Only one of them had a foreman who had the patience to handle the situation. The boys had climbed the trees while waiting for ladders, thrown cherries at each other and at adult workers, broken branches and ruined the trees while picking, played tag in the packing sheds, smashed buckets, shrieked and yelled, spilled drinking water, and in general had done everything but pick cherries satisfactorily. On the way back the boys had thrown cherries at passing cars and shouted rude pleasantries at bystanders.

If the farmers were dazed, the directors of the program were more so. They began to pick up the pieces as best they could. They immediately decided to inspect each farm before sending any students to it, in order to see that the necessary equipment was ready and that the grower had provided a foreman who would handle ladders and who could cope with the boy-worker situation. The directors further decided to insist that the students be kept away from adult pickers. A plan was made to have each new group of students met at the orchard by a staff member from the agricultural commissioner's office, who would give them the needed instructions. An arrangement was made with the school district in which the orchards were located, to transport students in school busses for 40 cents each (for a distance of 12 to 16 miles one way). This cost was split equally between grower and student. It was also decided to send only boys at least 15 years old and weighing at least 125 pounds, and to keep the groups smaller-30 was set as a maximum number. Finally it was planned to have the boys assemble at a centrally located schoolhouse and to assign each group definitely to a certain

This program worked a little better, but complaints still came in. The boys did not seem to take the work seriously; they did not stick to the job. There were far too many boys walking away from the job and too much horseplay. The hours were too long; the farmers insisted upon the boys' actually working 8 hours at least. This, with the time spent in transportation, delays in paying off, and so forth, made the days very long. The boys often got back to town very late. The program directors were getting a little tense.

Then it happened. An elderly grower applied for workers. The agricultural representative inspected the farm and found no one there who could possibly handle the boys. He was unwilling to certify the job until a foreman selected by the directors was engaged. The farmer agreed, and an elementary-school principal was hired at \$5 a day (to be paid by the grower) to take complete charge of the job. To this job were assigned the boys who had been the greatest troublemakers on other farms. Much to the surprise of everyone, the arrangement worked. This crew made more money than any of the others, although the crop was no heavier than on other farms. Everyone was satisfied. It was the one bright spot of the cherry season, which was, by this time, about over.

Revamping the Program.

Between the end of the cherry season, in late June, and the fall harvest of pears, peaches, tomatoes, grapes, and walnuts, the directors carefully analyzed their experiences to see how the program could be made better. Files were brought up to date, and possible supervisors approached. It was agreed that no students should be used in the harvest until all available regular workers were employed in order that no duplication of services might occur. It was agreed also that the Employment Service should handle the orders for labor, and the school department should recruit the students. The agricultural department was to handle all farm inspections, and no orders were to be filled until the job was certified by it. Later checkups were to be made by representatives of the three agencies, as often as possible jointly.

The United States Employment Service made careful surveys of all crops in the county, analyzing production and estimating labor needs. These needs were broken down as to period and length of activity and type of labor required and in relation to probable source of labor. The school coordinator by this time had a fairly good picture of the student labor available. The next step was to survey jobs that could be done satisfactorily by students and other inex-perienced workers. It was found that most harvest work, as well as certain processing activities, could be done by inexperienced workers. particularly on fruit and vegetable crops. It was decided to concentrate the use of this type of labor on the peach, apricot, grape, nut, onion. and tomato harvests.

The problem of insurance was difficult. All three directors agreed that the student workers should have protection, and the student-labor coordinator was especially interested, as he was distr placi insur from in trainsur age. bodil the v trans not a video \$50,0 one a fatal accid

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uncertain how much liability he and the school district were incurring through recruiting and placing youngsters. Workmen's compensation insurance was to be insisted upon (as it had been from the start of the program), and accidents in transportation were to be covered by liability insurance for bodily injury and property damage. The amount of liability insurance for bodily injury differed according to the size of the vehicle and the number of students to be transported in it; but the insurance policy was not acceptable to the directors unless it provided, for the smallest vehicle, coverage up to \$50,000 for an injury or fatality to one person in one accident, and up to \$100,000 for injuries or fatalities to more than one person in one accident.

The type and amount of insurance carried by each grower with whom young persons were to be placed was verified with the insurance company by the school coordinator, and the Employment Service representative explained the requirements to the growers. This overlapping of functions, without friction, was characteristic of the administration of the program. It often seemed best to have the representative of one agency attend to things that would appear on an organization chart as the duties of the representative of another.

Most of the transportation difficulty was the result of the newness of the situation to the farmers. They had never before been confronted with this problem and were unprepared for it. There was, fortunately, only one transportation accident—a minor one. One of the amazing things about the season was the small number of accidents, none of them serious. The student-labor coordinator investigated each accident carefully, requiring a report on each from the supervisor on the job and checking with the physician and the child's parents until the injury was healed.

The Peach Season.

During the peach season, large numbers of girls were employed in the peach dry yards cutting fruit. One of the requirements was that the employment be in conformity with Federal and State legislation regulating employment and work permits.² This was particularly difficult to do, as a yard often began as a private, or one-farm yard, and later expanded, doing work for neighbors. The problem of sanitation had to be met, and students were not sent to any growers whose yards had inadequate

toilet facilities. It was also considered best to require a 15-minute rest period for girls in the middle of both forenoon and afternoon. Where large numbers of girls worked in a single yard (over 10 was considered a large number) a supervisor was selected by the school coordinator (and paid \$5 a day by the farmer), to act as "forelady." The supervisor had a difficult position, for not only was she supposed to keep account of each girl's earnings on a piece-work basis and be responsible to the farmer or packer for the quality of the work done, but she had to insist upon the rest period, make sure that the girls were not required to lift heavy trays, and see to it that the girls were not discriminated against by being given undersized fruit to cut. A crew was withdrawn from the yard of a packer who seemed determined to impose upon the girl workers in this way.

When the peach harvest began another group of agencies was brought into the program. Several farming communities had set up local labor-procurement offices, financed by growers. These agencies worked in cooperation with the United States Employment Service, the agricultural representative, or the school coordinator (each agency checking with the others before taking final action) to good advantage. During the peach harvest a number of crews of boys (never more than 10 boys in a crew) were placed with selected farmers to work without supervision. This arrangement worked well in all but one case, in which it was necessary to threaten action by the labor commissioner before the boys were finally paid. Crews of more than 10 were handled on the supervisory basis.

During the peach season only school busses ere used for transportation. The same arwere used for transportation. rangement was made as for the cherry harvest. Students and supervisors were assigned to definite jobs, and were checked on and off the busses by the school coordinator with the aid of the supervisors. The coordinator was thus able to tell where each student was during every working day and to assure the parents of any who loitered on the way home from the school assembly point that a safe round trip had been made. The peach season was the golden age of the program. Pressure was not too heavy, all the needed agencies were cooperating, transportation of a high standard was available, and the program directors had begun to have faith in themselves and in their fellow men.

The Grape Season.

One experience with the grape harvest is notable. A responsible grower was given a crew of 30 boys and a supervisor. By this time the supervisors' pay had been raised to \$7 a day.

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²Editor's note.—On August 6, 1942, early in the peach season, Child Labor Regulation 3 under the Fair Labor Standards Act was modified to permit employment of children 14 and 15 in peach and other dry yards (this was also legal under the State law), subject to specified conditions.

The grower was so pleased with the boys that he personally recruited at the school assembly point a group of girls for packing. The wife of the grower acted as "forelady," and all requirements, such as those regarding permits and sanitation, were observed. This grower, incidently, gave the supervisor of the boys a bonus of \$25 at the end of the 3-week period.

The Tomato Season.

The tomato harvest was late; it did not get under way until after school opened, October 1. San Joaquin County produces 6 percent of all the canning tomatoes grown in the United States. The labor included two parts: picking and canning. Up to this time the canneries had been able to handle most of their own labor problems, calling upon the school coordinator only a few times, at the peak of the peach season. Many boys had been given advice as to how to obtain cannery work, but few definite placements had been made. However, the community had four canneries that were packing tomatoes, and some adjacent communities had twice as many.

Now that school was starting, the studentlabor coordinator and the Employment Service representative got in touch with the principals of the two local high schools, the placement officer of a nearby junior college, and the superintendent of the local can factory, who had previously made contact with the canners. It was decided to cut the school programs of all secondary schools to a half-day program—this was done by cutting the length of periods-to attempt to man the canneries with junior-college and college students (and other nonprofessional workers) working 4-hour shifts, and to let highschool students, working not more than 4 hours a day, pick the tomatoes. The 4-hour cannery shift was immediately opposed by the canners on the ground that there was no law prohibiting persons 18 and over from working longer hours, but as the school authorities refused to cooperate on any other basis the canners agreed.

The shortening of the secondary-school day received many justified criticisms. Of the 3,000 students enrolled, the number of students working on an average day was a little over 300. However, some 1,000 students were working at other jobs, and the 300 daily average was maintained by a pool of about 500 students.

There were other difficulties. The inspection service had been withdrawn; this made it necessary to skip some crop surveys. A new group of farmers was being served, and these had to be educated in the proper ways to handle students. Transportation was makeshift, although insurance standards were kept up and fortu-

nately no one was injured. Farmers were short of equipment; buckets were not obtainable and boxes had to be used for much of the picking and often crews had to be laid off for a day for lack of boxes. The farmers had not solved their crop-transportation problems. Many of the growers were amateur farmers who had purchased bargain crops from evacuated Japanese. Conflicting orders so confused the boys that in some cases they resorted to the only thing they were sure they knew how to do—throw tomatoes. There was a tendency at first for growers to give the students poor picking and to reserve choice crops for "professional" crews.

Both boys and girls were used, often in mixed crews; the supervisor of a mixed crew might be a man or a woman teacher. In general, teachers who taught physical education, shop, band, and so forth, to large groups of students were more successful as crew supervisors than teachers of formal subjects. There were, however, notable exceptions.

The lack of sanitary conveniences was serious, and there did not seem to be any way to better this situation quickly. Drinking water was not a bad problem during tomato harvest, as most students found that tomatoes from the vine quenched their thirst better than water.

The hours of the students were too long; they began school at 7 o'clock in the morning and did not usually arrive home until after 6 o'clock at night. The growers were insistent on a 7-day week, and to prevent loss of crops the coordinator compromised by recruiting special Sunday crews, mostly 14-year-old boys (from the upper grades of elementary schools) and their parents.

In spite of the handicaps, including bad weather (which alternated between excessive heat and rain), the students averaged more than 3,000 boxes of tomatoes a day for 30 days. The supervisors were paid 90 cents an hour. The students were paid on a constantly rising scale which began at 12 or 14 cents a box and ended at 16 to 22 cents a box. The best pickers made from \$6 to \$8 a day of 4 hours. Those who could not make \$3 were thought to be too slow to send out again.

Coordination the Key to Success.

In the light of the Stockton experience it appears that if any successful utilization of student and other inexperienced farm labor is to be accomplished, there must be complete coordination of effort of all groups concerned—civic, Federal, State, and county—through a central control agency, with a single person responsible for administrative direction. The successive steps that were found essential in

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working out the program were the analysis of crops and crop production; the recruitment and referral of workers, both full time and part time; the centralization and verification of employer orders for workers and the inspection of the farms for equipment, sanitary facilities, and drinking-water supply; and the organization of transportation, including arrangements for adequate coverage of all transportation by public-liability insurance.

The most important factors from the standpoint of smooth operation seem to be, in order of importance, supervision, farm inspection, education of the growers, transportation, recruitment, and assignment. From the standpoint of child welfare the important points are insurance (both workmen's compensation and insurance covering transportation), hours, age, drinking water, sanitary conveniences, safety equipment, and protection from exploitation.

STANDARDS FOR WORKING CONDITIONS OF MINORS UNDER 18 IN AGRICULTURE

Adopted for Stockton

- 1. Each grower ordering student labor must be interviewed and his ranch inspected;
- 2. Growers employing children must carry workmen's compensation and public-liability insurance covering transportation;
- 3. A supervisor, satisfactory to the inspector, must accompany each group of 10 or more children;
- Student crews must be segregated from other workers;
- 5. An 8-hour day must be the maximum for crews including any members under 16 years of age;
- 6. New crews must be trained at the ranch by a member of the county agricultural-department staff;
- 7. Crews must leave the assembly point and be returned by the grower at specified times;

- 8. Transportation must be by school bus, or safe trucks with solid sides, closed backs, and adequate seating arrangements, driven by a licensed chauffeur;
- 9. The minimum age must be 15 years, and the minimum weight 125 pounds for young workers doing difficult work such as fruit picking;
 - 10. Ladders must be moved by adults;
- 11. Drinking water must be obtained from a source used by the ranch family for a prior period of 30 days without illness, and individual cups must be provided.
- 12. Later, when girls were placed through the program, standards were revised to require a rest period of 15 minutes in the morning and afternoon and a 1-hour lunch period.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

BOOK NOTES

Trend of Child Labor, 1939 to 1942, by Ella Arvilla Merritt. Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 56, No. 3 (March 1943), pp. 450-467. Reprints available from Children's Bureau,

That there is a very large increase in the number of boys and girls between 14 and 18 years of age going to work throughout the country is shown by figures for employment certificates issued that are reported to the Children's Bureau. Employment certificates reported for 14- and 15-year-old children going to work full-time or part-time increased from approximately 37,000 in 1940 to nearly 66,000 in 1941; and those for 16- and 17-year-old boys and girls, from about 160,000 to more than 370,000. These reports do not show illegal employment, which is increasing, nor do they include children going to work in occupations for which certificates are not required.

In some of the States and cities for which 1942 figures were available the percentage increase from 1940 to 1942 in regular and vacation certificates issued was very striking. For instance, for 14- and 15-year-old children the increase ranged from 182 percent in North Carolina to 541 percent in Pittsburgh, Pa.; and for 16- and 17-year-old minors, from 176 percent in North Carolina to 838 percent in Oregon.

Wartime Employment of Boys and Girls Under 18. Children's Bureau Publication 289, Washington, 1943, 16 pp.

This pamphlet points out the dangers implicit in the tremendous increase in the number of boys and girls under 18 leaving school for work and stresses their need for protection from loss of educational opportunity and from undue physical strain and work hazards. Available data on the number, age, sex, and occupation of young workers under 18 are discussed, and developments in the field of child-labor and school-attendance laws are reviewed. In conclusion, the principles that should underlie plans for the wise participation of youth in wartime employment are outlined.

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Security for Children in Post-War Years

Objectives of State and Community Action

BY EMMA O. LUNDBERG

Consultant in Social Services for Children, U. S. Children's Bureau

Note.—Preprinted from revised edition of Our Concern—Every Child. The first section, The Welfare of Children in Peace and in War, appeared in *The Child* for June 1943.

The objectives that have been defined for the children of this Nation will not be attained through declarations of ideals and principles but through effective action in each State and in each community. Fulfillment of some of these aims will require assistance by the Federal Government to enable State and local units to provide essential resources for the health, education, and social-welfare needs of children. In addition to their direct responsibilities for child care and protection, safeguarding health, and promoting education, States have the important task of providing leadership and financial aid to local units of government. But it is upon the thousands of local communities throughout the country that the chief responsibility rests for initiating and for carrying through the measures that are needed if all their children are to be protected in their inherent rights to the security of a home, health protection, and educational and recreational opportunities.

SECURITY OF THE HOME

Secure family life is the background of child welfare. Programs for social insurance, public assistance, and prevention of unemployment, and for improving housing, sa feguarding public health, and making more generally available the essentials of an American standard of living are being formulated as fundamental parts of post-war planning. These are basic measures for the protection of children. No ameliorative or child-caring activities can compensate a child for the loss of the security which he should find in his home; no protective measures can make up to him for malnourishment and unsanitary living conditions in childhood.

Economic security which will make it possible for families, wherever they may live and whatever may be their station in life, to provide for their families in accordance with a decent standard of American living is the first and by far the most important step in preserving home life. The greatest cause of child dependency—broken homes—would be greatly reduced by various forms of social insurance which lessen the burden of families when the death or disability of the wage earner threatens the stability of the home. Well-administered and adequate public assistance to families who require such aid in order to give their children proper care is an essential part of the program for family security.

For more than 30 years public aid to dependent children in their own homes has been emphasized as a primary child-welfare measure, and within the past few years, through the Social Security Act, great advance has been made in provision for children deprived of parental support. The assistance given under this form of public aid is still far from adequate in most of the State and local units of government, both with respect to the adequacy of family grants and the small proportion of children in each community in need of such aid who are receiving assistance. Consideration should be given to measures which would equalize Federal grants to States, and State aid to local units, in accordance with the financial ability of the State or the local unit to supply the necessary funds. With the help of the State administrative agency, every community should make a careful study of the need for aid to children in their own homes, the extent to which the need is now being met, and the strengths, the shortcomings, and the financial resources of the responsible administrative agency, and should face the question of how this form of assistance may be made a more effective instrument in preserving home life in the post-war years.

PROTECTION OF CHILD HEALTH

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supported in part through Federal funds, to local units of government to assist them in making certain types of medical care available. But the character of the health program of the community depends upon the concern which the county, city, village, or town itself has for the health and well-being of its inhabitants. Every community has the responsibility of safeguarding the health of all its members through enforcement of sanitary regulations, control of contagious diseases, and promotion of adequate housing facilities. It is also the obligation of the community to see to it that preventive and curative health services and medical care are available to the entire population, to those who are unable to pay for necessary services as well as to those who are economically able to procure for themselves all the essentials of the family's health.

The first essential of a well-rounded community program for the protection of child health is a full-time local public-health service organized on a county, city, or district basis and provided with adequate funds and qualified staff.

Health measures of primary importance to children which should be available through services of qualified physicians, public-health nurses, clinics, or hospitals include:

Medical and nursing care for all women during maternity and for all newborn infants.

Supervision of the health and development of all infants and children at stated intervals.

Health instruction in schools and health education of parents in methods of conserving both physical and mental health.

Effective nutrition services. Medical care when needed.

The cost of preventive services and medical care must be faced squarely. Through a program of education the public must be brought to realize the vital importance of the proposed health measures and their relationship to family life and to education and social welfare.

EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

Equality of opportunity for education is the cornerstone of democracy. The war emergency has brought into the foreground many inequalities and shortcomings of educational systems now in operation. Post-war education will be faced with many new problems brought about by wartime shortages of teachers and inadequacy of funds required to maintain recognized standards of buildings and equipment. But there will also have come a more general under-

standing of the need for making available to all children, regardless of race or place of habitation, those opportunities which will give to every child the chance to grow into a well-balanced, useful citizen. Each State and each community must meet this challenge in a realistic way.

Physical handicaps should not deprive children of academic training and the chance to develop latent talents and abilities. Special school facilities are essential for adequate training of children who are blind or have defective vision, who are deaf or hard of hearing, crippled or unable to attend the regular classes because of chronic illness. In order that they may become community assets and not liabilities, mentally deficient children should receive suitable training up to the limit of their capacities. All too few States and communities have assumed full responsibility for the education of those who are unable to share in the school programs of more fortunate children. The obligation for making special training available to all children who need it rests with the States as well as the local communities.

Educational opportunity includes much more than provision of primary and secondary schools and special training for those equipped to profit by it. It means also making available to children, and adults as well, the services of public libraries and the instructive media which communities may offer through study clubs, lectures, museums, and various forms of visual instruction. Much that is thought of primarily as recreation, such as boys' and girls' clubs, "scouting," camping, and similar activities which help to develop character and provide an outlet for individual interests and talents should also be planned for because of its educational values. A community program which is designed to provide full educational opportunities to boys and girls should take into account these means of mental as well as physical growth.

Conditions resulting from the war have emphasized the direct relationship between the increasing problem of juvenile delinquency and the absence of adequate school facilities in communities supplying war materials. Children are denied the fundamentals of an education and are left to roam the streets and follow their own devices because enough schools have not been provided to permit enrollment of all children of school age. Half-day sessions, inadequate equipment, and a poorly paid and illequipped teaching staff rob many children of the basic education which should be guaranteed to every child. These conditions are in urgent need of correction as wartime measures; in the post-war years every child should have available

¹ Children in a Democracy. General Report adopted by the White House Conference, January 19, 1940, pp. 58-59.

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schooling which will prepare him for responsible citizenship.

CHILD LABOR

Protection against child labor is closely allied to the subject of educational opportunity. So long as children and youth are compelled by economic necessity to seek employment at an age when they should be receiving an education, and so long as laws regulating child labor fail to provide essential protection, children will be deprived of the schooling which is their due, and physically immature boys and girls will engage in work which not only stunts their minds but which may injure their bodies.

Greatly increased employment of children has revealed weaknesses and gaps in child-labor protection in many States. Those undertaking planning for post-war years should ascertain the situation in the particular State or community and make sure that adequate child-labor standards are incorporated into law and that provision is made for effective administration.

The community has a continuing responsibility for preventing loss of education and unsuitable employment that not only may cause irreparable injury to youth now but may handicap them as future citizens prepared to maintain security for the children of post-war years. This responsibility extends to all the services that relate to the child in his transition from school to work and that depend on community support for their effectiveness—vocational guidance, employment-certificate issuance, and placement services.

Consideration must be given also to employment and education problems of youth that may arise in a post-war period of restricted employment opportunities. Boys and girls now in school should be given a broad type of education that will enable them to qualify for jobs in such a period. At the end of the war, children who left school prematurely because of war conditions should be encouraged to complete their education, and young persons who cannot find jobs should be offered further education and training and provided with work opportunities—if necessary, under public auspices. The years following the war should see a strengthening of child-labor laws, both federally and in the States that do not now afford adequate protection, and a quickening of community responsibility for seeing that these laws are properly administered for the benefit of youth.

SOCIAL SERVICES FOR CHILDREN

In all States the welfare department or some other department or board of the State government has under its jurisdiction institutions for juvenile delinquents and for mentally deficient children. Schools for blind and for deaf children are also under State control, and in many States institutions for dependent children or child-placing activities for the care of these children are conducted by the State welfare department. These institutions and agencies are designed to give care and training to children who are peculiarly in need of the protection of the State, but many of them do not have sufficient financial support to permit good standards of equipment and staff. The rising cost of living and, in many cases, increasing demands for service because of the war have made conditions even more serious than they were in normal times.

State institutions and agencies providing for care, treatment, and training of children should be studied to ascertain whether the service is such that it is of real benefit to the children. Appropriations made available to the responsible department should be sufficient to assure proper care of the State's most needy children. Careful consideration should be given to necessary expenditures for medical care, education, specialized training, and social service. Personnel requirements are of the greatest importance in determining appropriations needed for child-caring activities.

Laws relating to licensing and supervision of institutions and agencies have been enacted for the purpose of safeguarding children who must be cared for away from their own homes. All too often protective laws on the statute books are poorly enforced because of failure to make available a sufficiently large staff of qualified workers to carry out the purposes of the law. State departments have a constructive program of assistance to local public and private institutions and agencies in developing standards essential to the health and welfare of the children under their care.

Increasingly during the past decade State welfare departments have assumed a third function—aid to counties and other local units in planning social services and such financial assistance as will enable the communities to carry out these programs. Public social services for children are inadequate or they are lacking altogether in many local units because the State governments have not made sufficient provision for financial aid and for leadership in promoting these community services.

Planning for the welfare of all children in need of special care and protection involves ascertaining whether the State department responsible for the social welfare of children has sufficient appropriations and enough qualified workers to give adequate service to the chilVo. 1

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dren who are the State's wards, to exercise its regulatory powers in such a way that children will be safeguarded, and to assist local communities in providing social services for children and sharing the cost of these services.

The need for social services for children in every local community was emphasized by the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy:

Social services to children whose home conditons or individual difficulties require special attention should be provided in every county or other appropriate area. * * * The local public-welfare department should be able to provide all essential social services to children, either directly or through utilizing the resources of other agencies. Public and private childwelfare agencies should cooperate in a program which will assure the proper service to every child in need. * * * Public child-welfare services should be available to every child in need of such help without regard to legal residence, economic status, race, or any consideration other than the child's need.

Local child-welfare services have been provided in many rural counties and in a number of areas of special need through a program in which the Federal, State, and local units of Government share the cost. In a few States such services have been provided, mainly through State and local funds, on an almost State-wide basis, but in most of the States only a small proportion of counties are equipped with adequate public services for children. Every community should offer case-work services to children in their homes, means for prevention of behavior problems through services available to schools, resources for the care of children who must be provided for away from their own homes and access to treatment and training for physically handicapped children, and constructive treatment of children who are delinquent. Provision of essential social services in every community is one of the most definite and urgent problems of post-war security for children.

STATE ACTION THROUGH LEGISLATION

The child-welfare laws of a State reflect the concern of its citizens for the welfare of children. Statutory provisions do not of themselves create beneficial conditions; they define safeguards for those who are in need of special protection, and they give authority for administrative action by public agencies. Legislation which concerns children directly or indirectly should be in harmony with principles of child health, education, and social welfare recognized as essential to the well-being of children. Child-welfare standards cannot be translated into action unless State and local agencies charged with safeguarding health, providing

educational opportunities, and affording child care and protection are authorized by law to adopt policies and practices required to achieve these ends, and unless adequate funds are made available to them for carrying out these measures. The authority of State law is required to protect children from neglect or abuse, to safeguard those who are cared for away from their parental homes, to guard children against too early or hazardous employment, and to insure wise treatment of juvenile offenders.

The recommendation adopted by the 1919 Conference on Minimum Standards for Child Welfare (commonly referred to as the second White House Conference) is still applicable to the situation in many States:

The child-welfare legislation of every State requires careful reconsideration as a whole at reasonable in-tervals in order that necessary revision and coordination may be made and that new provisions may be incorporated in harmony with the best experience of the In States where children's laws have not had careful revision as a whole within recent years a childwelfare committee or commission should be created for this purpose. Laws enacted by the several States should be in line with national ideals and uniform so far as desirable in view of diverse conditions in the several States. Child-welfare legislation should be framed by those who are thoroughly familiar with the conditions and needs of children and with administrative difficul-It should be drafted by a competent lawyer in such form as to accomplish the end desired by childwelfare experts and at the same time be consistent with existing laws.

Legislative commissions or committees, officially created or working under the auspices of State-wide organizations, have studied childwelfare laws in a number of States during the past few years. In most instances their efforts have been directed toward revision of certain phases of protective laws, most frequently in the field of social welfare. While this has resulted in modernizing the statutes in these particular areas, it has often failed to harmonize these laws with provisions in related fields. It is not always practicable to review the whole range of legislation relating to children or to "codify" all laws which have a bearing upon child welfare, but it is important that whatever phase of legislation is dealt with shall be studied in relation to other laws which may have a bearing upon the same subject. For example, laws designed for the protection of children cared for away from their own homes should be approached from the health as well as the social welfare point of view; persons drafting childlabor laws should take into account provisions of laws relating to schooling.

There is growing recognition of the desirability of providing for continuous review of

² Children in a Democracy. General Report, p. 64.

² Minimum Standards for Child Welfare Adopted by the Washington and Regional Conferences on Child Welfare, 1919, Children's Bureau Publication 62. Washington 1920.

laws in the fields of health, education, and social welfare by an official body representative of these interests in order that statutory provisions may be brought into harmony with recognized standards of care and protection and with administrative needs. Voluntary organizations, such as legislative committees of State conferences on social welfare, and health and education organizations, may perform a most useful function by keeping in touch with the operation of protective legislation and the need for revising existing laws so as to make them more effective. The active concern of voluntary organizations as well as official bodies is needed especially in relation to appropriations made available by State legislatures for administration of State departments, support of public institutions and agencies, and assistance to local public-health, education, and social-welfare

departments.

Constant vigilance is needed to keep pace with changing conditions which may necessitate new controls. Legislation relating to wartime emergencies is a case in point.⁴ Not only must legal provision be made for dealing with conditions that require special safeguards but such

emergency legislation must be reviewed when the special need is over, so that its provisions will not stand in the way of progress toward a unified body of laws conforming to the standards set for the care and protection of children in the State.

Child-welfare legislation should be studied from the point of view of the social purposes to be attained through the specific proposals why certain regulations and types of provision are needed and through what supervisory or administrative processes they may be made effective. Certain basic principles of legislation are applicable in all States, but the development of a unified body of child-welfare laws in any State must take into account the need for specific types of protection and the extent to which laws now on the statute books afford the necessary safeguards. Legal definition of the responsibilities of State and local government agencies and the appropriations made available to them for carrying on these duties determine the character of the services which can be provided by these agencies. State laws relating to the care and protection of children should be developed through a continuing process of keeping abreast of changing social and industrial conditions and harmonizing statutory provisions with evolving standards of child care and protection.

War-Area Child-Care Bill

On May 24, 1943, Senator Thomas of Utah introduced Senate Bill 1130, providing for care of children of women employed in war areas of the United States. The bill was referred to the Senate Committee on Education and Labor.

At the committee hearings held on June 8, Charles P. Taft, Director, Office of Community War Services, presented the basic outlines of the bill, which would provide for \$20,000,000 to be appropriated annually as grants to States for day care and extended school services for children of working mothers. The program would be administered by the Children's Bureau and the United States Office of Education, coordinated by the Office of Community War Services of the Federal Security Agency.

Dr. Martha M. Eliot, Associate Chief of the Children's Bureau, in her statement before the committee, pointed out that the aspects of the program assigned in this bill to the Children's Bureau and State welfare departments, i. e., community-wide information and advisory service, foster-family care, day-care centers, and health services appropriate to these programs, are in the main not being developed through the

use of Federal funds by any other Federal agency. She pointed out that the already existing structure and experience of Federal and State agencies would enable them promptly and efficiently to "convert peacetime machinery for community care of children of working mothers to a wartime basis."

The bill was passed by the Senate July 1 and thereupon was referred to the House of Representatives Committee on Education.

State Committees on Children in Wartime

Committees on Children in Wartime organized under the State defense council and having broad programs of child welfare have now been appointed in 27 States and the District of Columbia. In addition to the committees listed in *The Child* for March 1943 (p. 138) the Office of Civilian Defense reports that children's committees in the following States have adopted a broad program for children in wartime:

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¹Sec Legislation for the Protection of Children in Warting—Suggestions Submitted by the Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartine. Children's Bureau, Washington, January 1943.

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BOOK NOTES

Social Services

In Quest of Foster Parents; a point of view on home finding, by Dorothy Hutchinson. Columbia University Press, New York, 1943. 145 pp. \$1.75.

From her wide experience in the field Miss Hutchinson has given a practical discussion of the changing concept of present-day home finding. Her interpretation of procedures and practices and the case stories she has selected add much to the general usefulness of the publication.

Miss Hutchinson discusses the importance of understanding the incentive of the applicant and the use of this knowledge in the selection and placement of the child. The case-work processes in home finding are dealt with in the light of realities and of human relationships. Her suggestions for individualizing the refusal, when for one reason or another the foster home does not meet the particular need of the agency, transforms the "disagreeable chore" of refusing foster parents into a case-work challenge.

The chapter on Home Finding in Wartime is especially timely. A comprehensive bibliography supplements the author's observations and increases the usefulness of the publication to students and case workers in the field of child placement.

Social Work Year Book, 1943. Russell H. Kurtz, editor. Seventh issue. Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East Twenty-second Street, New York, 764 pp. 83,25.

Each of the seven editions of the Social Work Year Book has had improvements in arrangement of subject matter. In the 1943 issue separate articles on adoption, care of dependent and neglected children, child labor, day care for children, and parent education and child development describe activities previously discussed under other titles.

For this 1943 edition the editor and his advisory committee had to decide whether the Social Work Year Book was to be changed into a special wartime volume or was to keep the form developed in its six previous editions. The decision was to keep to the traditional pattern because social problems of wartime are not, in general, new. They are merely intensifications of the social workers' day-by-day duties in peacetime, calling for pointing up certain services and extending peacetime organization as a whole. Consequently, the 1942 cross-section view of organization and practice in the various fields of social work shows wartime activities in their true perspective, making possible an estimate of trends leading into the post-war period.

The topical articles on wartime services contain much useful information for workers in children's agencies. For example, Service Men, in the section on provision for dependents, gives in detail allowances provided under the Servicemen's Dependents Allowance Act of 1942 for specified dependents of men in lower grades of the armed forces.

The extensive and exceedingly useful directory sections of previous editions are continued.

General Child Welfare

The Child and The Law in Pennsylvania, by Lillian L. Straus and Edwin P. Rome. Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania (311 South Juniper Street, Philadelphia), 1943. 292 pp. \$2.25.

This book is designed to set forth the laws of Pennsylvania relating to children, in a form practical for the legal profession and comprehensible to the lay reader. Subjects dealt with are the relations of parent and child; child welfare, health, and education; civil and criminal rights and liabilities of minors. Statutes and parts of statutes of particular interest to lay groups and recent enactments frequently invoked are quoted in full; others are summarized. Some cases of particular or unusual interest or giving rise to representative judicial decisions are cited. Actual practice in the courts or procedure of administrative bodies is occasionally described. The incorporation in the text of references to statutes and cases usually relegated to footnotes causes some interruption to the continuity of thought.

Games for Children. National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Ave., New York, 1943. 62 pp. 50 cents.

Games for children of all ages, from early childhood to adolescence, are given in this booklet, which was prepared as a practical guide for recreation leaders, club workers, or parents. The material is grouped under topics such as singing games, tag games, relays, ball games, miscellaneous active games, quiet games, and nature games.

Community Life in a Democracy, edited by Florence C. Bingham. National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Chicago, 1942. 246 pp.

This is the third of a series of publications issued by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers dealing with the home, the school, and the community. It is based on the 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, in which the Congress actively participated.

The publication is composed of analyses of present-day conditions as observed by some 20 civic, religious, welfare, and educational leaders. The subject matter as well as the "study guide" which accompanies it offers a useful manual for practical service. Although intended primarily for the use of parent-teacher groups the thought-provoking statements presented should prove stimulating to other community groups interested in the development of constructive plans for the preservation of the American way of life.

SAFEGUARDING THE HEALTH OF MOTHERS • AND CHILDREN •

BOOK NOTES

Your First Bary, by Louise Cripps Glemser. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York, 1943. 90 pp. \$1.

This brief book on modern methods of infant care and feeding demonstrates something all workers dealing with parents would like to put across: that the baby will be much better off if, instead of worrying, the child's parents adopt a comfortable attitude of belief in their ability to learn and carry out the necessary techniques without heavy-handed solemnity. Sound principles are clothed in easy-going, simple language, and pointed up by full-page photographs illustrating the various steps in baby care. A section on records of the child's development is included.

CHILDREN CAN HELP THEMSELVES, by Marion Olive Lerrigo, Ph. D. Macmillan Co., New York, 1943. 219 pp. 82.25.

In a narrative outlining the development of a fictional child, David, the author translates into readable form rather exhaustive research findings on the accomplishments and skills to be expected at various ages from 1 month to 11 years, with suggestions throughout as to how parents may make use of this knowledge. David's growth in health habits, the development of his ability to get along with other children, his parents' wise attempts to look with detachment at some of the usually disturbing "passing phases" of behavior are described in a way that gives concrete assurance to parents. That children can and do differ in their development while being normal in every way is indicated by reference to David's playmates of the same age.

The book gives an accurate interpretation of the findings in the many sources mentioned. Easy use of the book would have been furthered by an index.

Education of the Young Child; a nursery-school manual, by Catherine Landreth. John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1942. 279 pp. \$2.50.

The director of the nursery school at the University of California Institute of Child Welfare has made this book just what its title indicates—a practical help for the nursery-school worker. The principles of preschool education cannot be reduced to a formula, but copious examples of how the expert teacher makes use of every kind of situation in the nursery school to interpret these principles and let them function should be of great aid to students of the art of child guidance.

Intended for use in the training of nursery-school

Intended for use in the training of nursery-school teachers, the manual might well be utilized now in courses for volunteer workers in child-care centers. Girls and women who have had no formal training in child development should find this statement of educational objectives and presentation of flexible methods of meeting them, well worth attention.

Working assignments, bibliography, and record forms are included, as well as a few notes on pertinent research. There is a brief history of the nursery-school movement in chapter 1, which, however, omits mention of the pioneer work of Dr. Helen E. Woolley at Merrill-Palmer School.

PSYCHOLOGIC CARE DURING INFANCY AND CHILDHOOD, by Ruth Morris Bakwin, M. D., and Harry Bakwin, M. D. D. Appleton-Century Co, New York. 1942. 317 pp. \$3.50.

This book is designed to offer orientation in the intellectual and emotional development of infants and children to the pediatrician and general medical practitioner. The book should be particularly useful to medical students in connection with the study of pediatrics. It should likewise be helpful to the student and graduate nurse. A bibliography is given at the end of each chapter for the use of those interested in further study. In 34 chapters, covering 298 pages, the authors have outlined some basic principles of the child's growth emotionally, intellectually, and socially. Techniques of examination, the common behavior disturbances, and educational difficulties are discussed and methods of treatment suggested.

The Neuromuscular Maturation of the Human Infant, by Myrtle B. McGraw. Columbia University Press, New York, 1943. 140 pp. \$2.

A series of studies begun more than a decade ago under the aegis of the late Dr. Frederick Tilney are summed up in this volume.

In an endeavor to correlate the behavior development of the growing infant with cortical function, the author carried out behavior studies concerned primarily with sequential changes in specific functions. The functions examined were, essentially, those motor activities common to the infant and young child. The primary aim was to depict, in a general way, the characteristics which reflect participation of the cerebral cortex in each function.

Although it was not possible to identify the functioning of specific cortical areas, the methods employed in the study made it possible to detect certain characteristics of behavior which, in each activity, manifest a

deliberate or voluntary quality.

In the final chapter the author demonstrates the practical application to which the knowledge gained from the study can be put. The process of growth as reflected in the early motor development of the baby provides helpful and practical suggestions for the im-

provement of teaching methods.

C. A. C., M. D.

Convulsive Seizures: How To Deal With Them, by Tracy J. Putnam, M. D. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1943. 168 pp. \$2.

Epilepsy creates anxiety and confusion for patient and relatives, teachers, and social workers. Every patient so afflicted needs competent medical supervision and judicious interpretation regarding his condition. Dr. Putnam has anticipated in this authoritative non-technical book questions which might be raised or should be raised by those concerned with convulsive seizures. Parents, social workers, and teachers will find the book enlightening and reassuring.

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INTER-AMERICAN COOPERATION

Dedication of New Children's Hospital in Mexico City

BY A. L. VAN HORN, M. D.

Assistant Director for Crippled Children, Division of Health Services, U.S. Children's Bureau

It was my privilege to serve as representative of the Chief of the Children's Bureau at the dedication of the Hospital Infantil in Mexico City on May 29, 1943.

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This hospital is the first children's hospital built by the Government of Mexico and is the second hospital to be completed in the new medical center now under construction. The building is of concrete construction, is modernistic in style of architecture, and has 6 floors. It has a capacity of 550 beds for children of all ages from newborn infants up to 14 years of age.

Facilities and services of the hospital include an out-patient clinic, with adjoining laboratories for special diagnostic services, in-patient facilities for pediatrics, orthopedic surgery, general surgery, otolaryngology, ophthalmology, neurology, and dermatology services, as well as special provisions for physiotherapy, occupational therapy, educational services, and social services. One unit has been specially designed for the care of premature infants. There are also a breast-milk station and a well-equipped milk laboratory.

The department of nutrition, which is responsible for the preparation of food for child patients and employees, is staffed by persons trained in dietetics and is furnished with mechanical refrigerators and other modern equipment.

Experienced educational-therapy workers will teach invalid or crippled children occupations that they will be able to continue after leaving the hospital, instruct them in their school subjects so that they need not fall behind, and help them in other ways to spend the time in the hospital usefully and pleasantly.

The department of social services is responsible for studying the economic and social conditions of the families of the sick children in order to help them in any way possible and to determine how much of the cost of the child's care they should be asked to pay. The charges will be moderate, and treatment will be free for those whose families are unable to pay.

Hospital Infantil will be used as a teaching hospital for the medical school of the National University and has lecture rooms, classrooms, and student laboratories located in the building.

The hospital will be under the immediate direction of Dr. Federico Gómez, a prominent pediatrician of Mexico City, who has been interested for many years in the development and construction of a children's hospital in that city. There is a full-time resident staff of physicians, many of whom have had recent training in pediatrics in the United States. A group of graduate nurses from Mexico who have also received training in pediatric nursing in the United States will serve as supervisors in various units of the new hospital. There is also a full-time staff of roentgenologists, pathologists, bacteriologists, physical therapists, and so forth.

Dr. Juan Farill, an orthopedic surgeon of Mexico who is well known in the United States, has been designated chief of the orthopedic service in Hospital Infantil.

A descriptive leaflet, Hospital Infantil de México, with photographs of the hospital and its various departments, has been issued by the Secretaria de la Asistencia Pública, Mexico (1943. 31 pp.).

Spanish Edition of The Child

The Instituto Panamericano de Bibliografia y Documentacion, Mexico, Dr. Miquel Ferrer, Director, has taken the initiative in arranging for the publication of a Spanish edition of *The Child*. During an initial period of 4 months the Children's Bureau will have at its disposal, through the assistance of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, a limited number of free copies of the Spanish edition.

After the trial period all subscriptions will be on a paid basis, at the rate of 50 cents a year. Subscriptions should be sent to the Instituto Panamericano de Bibliografia y Documentacion, Apartado Postal 8626, Mexico, D. F.

EVENTS OF CURRENT INTEREST

YOUR COMMUNITY IS

The Children's Bureau plans to publish in The Child during the last 6 months of 1943 several short, graphic accounts of local activities illustrating the six-point program outlined in Community Action for Children in Wartime (Children's Bureau Publication 295). Contributions are invited. The six-point program calls for:

A well-baby clinic in every community.
 Care for children of employed mothers.

3. School lunches in every school.

4. Schooling for every child.

5. Play and recreation programs in every community. 6. Employment afeguards for every boy and girl.

Stories should not exceed 800 words and may describe any one of these programs or any combination of them, as already existing in a community or as newly established. If photographs illustrating the program are available they should be submitted with the article. Send two typewritten copies of the manuscript if possible.

Give specific details—on ways in which community interest was stimulated, how the program was set up and financed, what groups helped, what features do most to make it a success. Don't think you cannot send in a story because the program is not county-wide; we want to know what your own neighborhood is doing.

Contributions received by the first of each month will be considered for publication in The Child for the following month. Reprints up to 100 copies will be available without charge to the author of an article accepted for publication. Address contributions to Editor, *The Child*, Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

Appointment of Miss Shepperson

Gay Shepperson was recently appointed as Assistant to the Chief of the Children's Bureau. Until recently she was Deputy Director of the Board of Public Welfare of the District of Columbia. Formerly she was the Director of the Work Projects Administration for Georgia.

Miss Shepperson will also be Director of the Social Service Division, assisted by Elsa Castendyck in charge of research, and Mildred Arnold in charge of child-welfare field staff.

CONFERENCE CALENDAR

- Sept. 13-17. American Hospital Association, Buffalo. Permanent headquarters: 18 East Division Street, Chicago.
- 5-7. National Safety Council, Thirtysecond national safety congress and exposition, Chicago. Permanent headquarters: 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago,
- Oct. 12-14. American Public Health Association. Three-day wartime public-health conference, New York. Permanent headquarters: 1790
- Broadway, New York. Nov. 14-20. Children's Book Week. Twentyfifth annual celebration. Theme: Build the future with books. Headquarters: 62 West Forty-fifth Street, New York.

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